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MONTANA WOMEN AND WORK

A Survey of Needs and Attitudes

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*Final Report Completed
With the Cooperation of:*
Employment and
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Department of Labor
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State of Montana

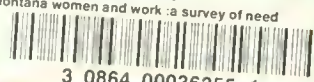
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Montana women and work : a survey of need

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INTRODUCTION

The "Survey of Montana Women and Work" was one component of a project conducted by staff of the Women's Bureau of the Montana Department of Labor and Industry under a special grant from the Employment Standards Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor. The overall purpose of the project was to review the impact of departmental policies upon women of the state of Montana.

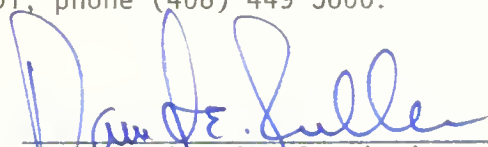
Three major activities were conducted under this project. First, activities and structure of the Women's Bureau were reviewed, and recommendations were made regarding improved methods of reaching and serving the women of Montana. Second, a review of the Montana Job Service was conducted to determine its impact upon women. Again, certain recommendations were made for possible improvements in its operation. Third, a survey of the women of Montana was conducted to determine their attitudes and needs regarding employment.

The "Survey of Montana Women and Work", the third component of the study, was addressed to a cross-section of all women of Montana, irrespective of employment status. Initially, a descriptive summary of the survey's tabulations was produced under the Department of Labor grant. It was later decided that a more indepth, refined analysis would prove useful. The following report is a product of that latter activity, completed with the cooperation of the Employment and Training Division of the Department of Labor and Industry, the State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (SOICC) and the state Interdepartmental Coordinating Committee for Women (ICCW).

Results of the survey portray a variety of attitudes and needs regarding employment. Women's actual circumstances also vary greatly according to factors such as age, race, number of young children, level of training and attitudes toward working.

The following report is intended to address a number of the special needs and circumstances of both working and non-working women. The contents of the chapters are diverse, due to the many different persons with varied interests providing input to this research endeavor. However, in spite of the variety of topics discussed, each chapter contains information regarding Montana women --- as the women themselves report it.

"Montana Women and Work - A survey of Needs and Attitudes" was conducted, analyzed and written by Marcia A. Dias and Laurie A. Lamson for the Women's Bureau. If you have any questions about this study, please write or call the Women's Bureau, Department of Labor and Industry, 35 South Last Chance Gulch, Helena, Montana 59601, phone (406) 449-5600.



DAVID E. FULLER, Commissioner
Department of Labor and Industry

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I. METHODOLOGY

A random sample of 2000 women was drawn from Montana's 1978 voter registration lists, supplemented by names drawn from AFDC lists of the Department of Social and Rehabilitative Services. The latter lists were included to guarantee that low-income persons, underrepresented on voter lists, would be included within the resultant sample. The sample was stratified by county to insure adequate geographic inclusion. Responses were obtained by mailed questionnaires; with 1360 questionnaires returned, the return rate approaches 70%.

The sample closely parallels the general population on major demographic characteristics, such as race, age, income level and geographic location --indicative that no serious bias associated with these demographic characteristics prevail either in the original sample or among that formed by the returned questionnaires. Information regarding these demographic characteristics is presented in the next chapter, "A Profile of Montana Women".

II. A PROFILE OF MONTANA WOMEN

Employment

It is estimated that there are 393,285 women in Montana as of 1978.* Approximately two-thirds of this total, or 252,882 women, are adults (18 years or older). It is this adult female population which is the concern of the analysis in this report.

Nearly half of all adult women in Montana are employed outside the home; the other half are not employed outside the home, as enumerated on the table which follows.

TABLE 1
Employment Status of Montana Women (1978)

Total Employed	45.3%
Full-time	(30.5%)
Part-time	(14.8%)
Total Not Employed	54.6%
Non-working	(39.8%)
Retired	(12.5%)
Disabled	(2.3%)
	<u>100.0%</u> (N=1300)

*Calculations based on 1978 intercensal estimates.

These employment rates are consistent with current national rates on women's employment. Most of the non-employed women consider themselves to be full-time homemakers; more discussion is devoted to the homemaker in Chapter VI of this report.

As seen from Table 1, about two-thirds of all working women are employed full-time and a third work part-time. A more precise breakdown of the number of hours worked (Table 2) reaffirms the data appearing in Table 1.

TABLE 2
Number of Hours Worked Per Week: Employed Women

Number of Hours	
One to 10	6.5%
11 to 20	13.8%
21 to 30	10.3%
31 to 40	61.9%
41 or more	7.4%
	<u>100.0%</u> (N=494)

Most women do not belong to labor unions. About 85% have no union affiliation and 15% are union affiliated. (See Table A-1 in the Appendix.) This finding is in keeping with unionization rates quoted by national surveys on women. An even smaller portion (7.2%) of all working women are self-employed. (See Table A-2 in the Appendix.)

Martial Status

Almost three-fourths of the women (73.9%) in this state are married. Somewhat less than 10% have never been married, and the remaining portion are either widowed, divorced or separated. This breakdown does not differ substantially from that of the 1970 census. For a comparison, see Table A-3 in the Appendix.

Age

When women are grouped into ten-year age cohorts, the population is fairly equally disbursed over the categories. That is, approximately 15% to 20% of the women comprise each of the ten-year age cohorts beginning with those in their twenties on through to those in their sixties and over. (Due to the natural decline in numbers of this latter category, all of those aged sixty and over are grouped together.)

The proportion of women within these ten-year age cohorts are equivalent to those reported by the last available census (1970). This is anticipated, since age cohorts generally are stable population characteristics, changing little from decade to decade unless there is massive in- or out-migration, which has not characterized Montana recently. For a comparison of age distribution as reported by the 1970 census and the sample utilized in this study, see Table A-4 of the Appendix.

Education

In Montana, the typical level of education for women is twelve years, or high school graduation. According to the survey, a third of all women have completed high school and about 16% have not completed high school. The remainder have either attended college a few years or completed college.

This data is not congruent with that reported in the 1970 census. Although both sources report about the same proportion of high school graduates, the census reports more women not completing high school and fewer having attended or completed college. (See Table A-5 in the Appendix.) There are several plausible explanations for this discrepancy. Obviously, a common bias known with mailed questionnaires may be in an underrepresentation of the least educated coupled with overrepresentation of the highest educated. However, it is interesting that education level, unlike age structure, is a volatile population characteristic, and the level continues to accelerate upward in the United States. This trend is particularly true for women in recent years. In fact, national statistics have shown an increase in the number of female college graduates by more than 100% between 1965 and 1975. This type of trend is likely affecting the discrepancy witnessed on Table A-5 of the Appendix.

In spite of these discrepancies, the set of figures which most accurately portrays the actual educational characteristics of Montana women is questionable. Thus, weighting of the sub-groups is inappropriate.

Race

The current racial composition of Montana women is essentially identical to that reported in the 1970 census. It is comprised almost entirely (95%) of whites with a very small proportion of non-whites (5%). The latter is almost exclusively American Indian. (See Table A-6 in the Appendix.)

Geographic Location

A comparison also was made between the last census and the survey data regarding county of residence. This information is contained in Table A-7 of the Appendix. Briefly stated, no substantial difference was reported in the proportion of population residing in the largest counties since 1970. Population changes observed in 1978 are very similar to those changes projected by intercensal reports.

More than half of the population is concentrated in seven of the 56 counties in Montana. The rural nature of this state is easily comprehended when one realizes that the remaining half of the population is scattered across 49 counties, most of which have a county population of less than 10,000.

The preceding discussion highlights Montana's female population on key characteristics. Furthermore, the comparisons with census data on stable characteristics substantiate the reliability of the sample employed. Consequently, overall data on women is easily and fully presented although in-depth analysis of particular sub-groups is not as elaborate as might be desired due to the limitations imposed by some of the small frequencies.

Other Information

A large section of this report deals with work-related problems and needs. Each type of need or problem is presented as it affects the overall female workforce. Each problem or need is then presented as related to educational level of the respondents. Substantial differences among the educational categories are thus reported. Although many different items could have been cross-tabulated against these problems and needs, educational level is particularly useful from the training perspective. It can pinpoint the particular problems encountered by people with certain levels of education.

Overviews of occupational attachment follow, as well as descriptions of non-employed women. Information also is presented on the types of women who are interested in training for certain occupational areas, including non-traditional lines of work. Race, age, educational level and community size are related to training interests for this information.

Finally, two special groups, displaced homemakers and battered women, are gleaned from the sample and briefly discussed according to their particular problems and needs.

III. ASPECTS OF WORK AND EDUCATION

Work-related Needs

This chapter discusses various work-related needs as reported by Montana women who are either working or planning to seek work in the near future. The following table shows the magnitude of these needs --the percentage who require assistance* with various work-related services.

TABLE 3
The Need for Work-Related Services Among
Those Working or Planning to Seek Work **

Referral to specific job openings	56.3%
Counseling about suitable jobs	55.8%
General support and encouragement	44.2%
Counseling regarding different occupations	42.6%
Assistance with long-range plans	42.0%
Assertiveness training	40.2%
Referral to part-time jobs	40.1%
Information on apprenticeship programs	38.3%
Employment training	37.1%
Assistance with interview skills	34.9%
Counseling for on-the-job problems	28.9%
Test-Tutoring	26.3%
Information about child care	22.8%

*"Required Assistance" includes responses which indicated either "high" or "medium" need on a four-point scale of "high-medium-low-not needed".

**These figures do not total 100%, since respondents may check more than one item.

Table 3 shows that many women have a need for various work-related services. More than half of these women indicate a need for referral to specific job openings (56.3%) and counseling regarding jobs suitable to their background (55.8%), while general support and encouragement (44.2%), counseling regarding different occupations (42.6%), long-range career plans (42.0%) and assertiveness training (40.2%) rank next highest as needed services.

Following these, at least a third or more women indicate a need for information on apprenticeship programs (38.3%), employment training (37.1%), assistance with interviews skills (34.9%), and assistance with resume preparation (33.0%).

And lastly, not an unsubstantial proportion (29.8%) indicate a need for on-the-job counseling, while 26.3% would like test-tutoring and 22.8% indicate a need for information regarding child-care assistance.

Work-related Needs and Education Level

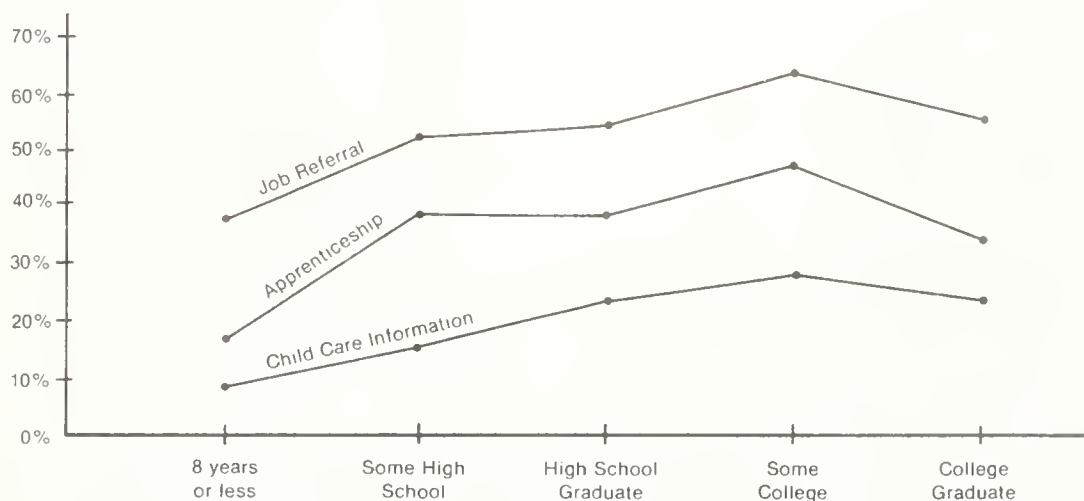
When these same work-related needs were viewed according to a woman's level of education, some interesting patterns emerged. Those with different levels of education had different needs, shown by the particular educational groups displaying disproportionately high or low numbers of women needing a service. As Table A-8 of the Appendix shows, for almost half of these survey items, education was related to a work-related need in a statistically significant way.

For practically all items it can be generalized that there is the least need for services among those at the lowest and highest educational extremes. Women with 8 years or less of schooling and women with college graduation both report not needing most work related services. The greatest need for these services is perceived among women within the middle-range of the educational categories.

Within the generalization two distinct patterns are apparent as demonstrated by the curves on Graphs 1 and 2.

First, Graph 1 shows that the need for certain services and the level of education are positively associated, with the exception of college graduates. That is, the higher the level of education (except for college graduates), the greater the number needing the following services: referral to specific job openings, information on apprenticeship programs and information on child care.

**GRAPH 1
EDUCATION BY SERVICES NEEDED**

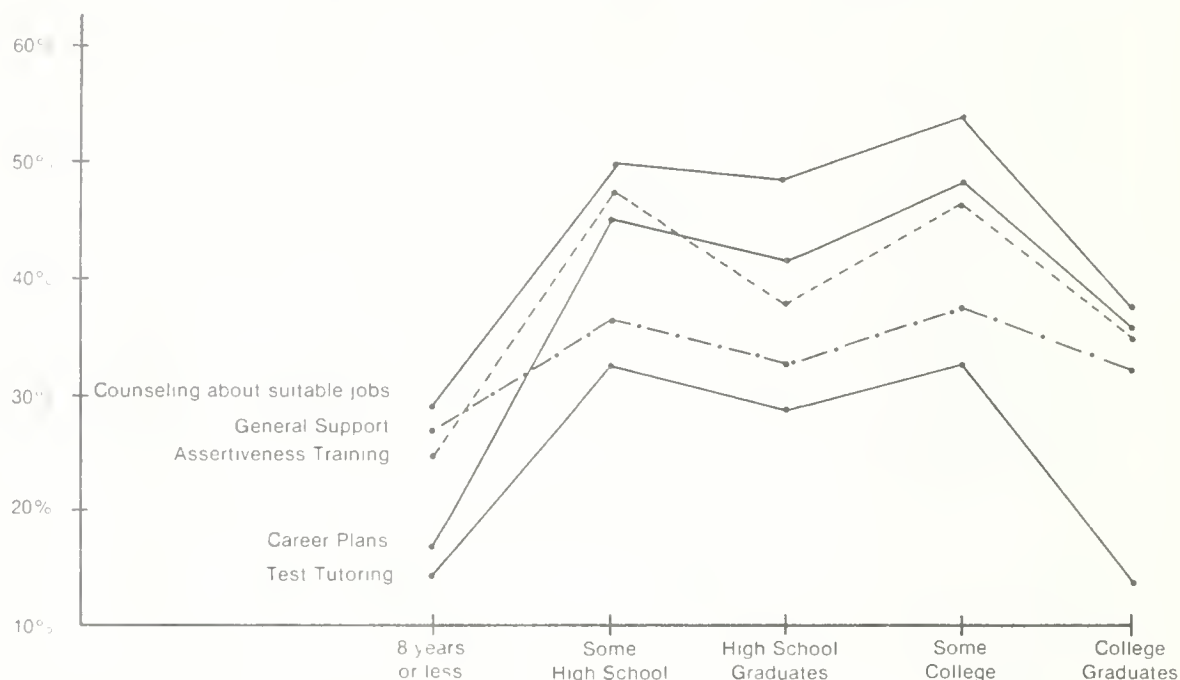


Secondly, the other emergent pattern's bimodality can best be likened to an 'M' curve, with the center never falling as low as the extremes. Services plotted on Graph 2 show that the highest and lowest educational categories require the least work-related services specified in the survey, and the middle educational categories require these services the most; while the dip in the center of these curves consistently indicates those

completing high school feel less of a need for these services than do counterparts with either some high school or with some college. The services most needed by the middle levels of education are: test-tutoring, career planning, assertiveness training, general support and encouragement and counseling about suitable jobs.

Graphs 1 and 2 were plotted on the basis of data contained in Table A8 of the Appendix.

GRAPH 2
EDUCATION BY OTHER SERVICES NEEDED



Respondents with different levels of education sometimes express similar needs, but this may likely be for different reasons. Although purely speculative, it stands to reason that the college graduate may not feel a need for work-related services because her education alone is a sufficient means to the end of adequate employment. While one with less than eight years of schooling likewise may not feel a need for work-related services, the reason may be different; she may feel the services are irrelevant if she has ceased trying to improve her employability. Yet, women with middle levels of education may be striving for job improvements and therefore most anxiously report a need for work-related services.

While theoretical, an understanding of the curves of Graph 2 is reliant upon the idea of differential expectations. The more one is educated, the more one expects to achieve in the sphere of employment. Those participating in an education curriculum would have higher expectations than would those never enrolling. However, those beginning but not completing the program are probably in no better position job-wise than those never enrolling. Consequently, their dissatisfaction and subsequent perception of a needed service is greater. This thought may underlie the poignant need reported by women with "some high school" or "some college," as compared to those with high school and college degrees.

Problems of Working Women

Sometimes the employment-related services just discussed are the reciprocal of problems faced by working women. However, the problems of working women can and do cover a much broader spectrum as evidenced by the information contained in Table 4 of this chapter. Many problems women encounter result from the actual characteristics of the job, but many others stem from family settings; still others result from economic, social or personal factors.

The following table lists various problems reported by working women in Montana. These same problems are broken out by the education level of respondents as shown on Table A-9 of the Appendix.

TABLE 4
Problems of Working Women*

Responsibility of job and family	37.3%
Work physically tiring	20.5%
Adequate child care	19.7%
Can't afford to quit, like to	19.3%
Help at home	19.2%
Prefer part-time work	17.8%
Lack of self confidence	17.0%
Need full-time work	15.6%
Transportation	14.2%
Sex discrimination	12.4%
Children too young	11.4%
Traveling on job	10.7%
Difficulty of work	10.4%
Husband's attitude toward wife working	9.3%
Supervision of teens	8.4%
Pregnancy	4.7%
Traveling with male associates	4.7%
Want to quit--afraid of retaliation	4.5%
Sexual harrassment on-the-job	4.0%
Race discrimination	1.6%

*These figures do not total 100% since respondents may check more than one item.

For working women, the greatest problem is the responsibility of both family and job. Obviously, this responsibility is defined differently by different women within different family structures, as seen by the proportions of women rating various aspects of this dual family role as problems. Nearly 40% indicate that, in general, the responsibility of job and family is a problem; likewise, 20% indicate that obtaining adequate child care is a problem. Somewhat more than 11% felt their children were too young, while about 8% worried about teenage supervision and 9% of the working women had difficulties with their husbands' attitudes. Therefore, it is not suprising that nearly 18% of all working women would prefer to be working part-time.

Overall, the problem of responsibility of both job and family was directly related to education. The more education a respondent had, the greater problem this dual responsibility posed. For those with eight years or less of formal schooling, this was a problem for 18.5% while among college graduates it was a problem for 42%. See Table A-9 of the Appendix. This finding may suggest greater responsibility linked to jobs held by those with higher levels of education, but could also represent an association between educational level and age.

Although family-related problems affect more women than do most of the other problems as shown by Table 4, some of the other problems that affect a substantial number of the respondents also deserve discussion.

Economic problems cannot be dismissed when 20% are so disenchanted with their jobs that they continue to work only because they can't afford to quit. This type of dissatisfaction is most preponderant among the middle education levels, not among the most and least educated women. Economics is also probably the crux of the problem for the 16% who report having part-time jobs, but prefer full-time jobs. These breakdowns are contained in Table A-9 of the Appendix.

Another problem reported by 14% of the women in Montana is the difficulty of transportation to and from work. This finding is consistent with findings from other surveys in this state which have concluded that the same percentage of the overall population has a transportation problem.

Physical strain of the job is a problem for somewhat more than 20% of all working women. This is especially a problem for those with some high school, of whom 33.2% record it as a problem. (See Table A-9 of the Appendix.) It is less of a problem for women as their education increases. This finding likely describes the type of jobs with which certain levels of education are associated.

Traveling on the job does not appear to be a major problem for working women--affecting only 11% of the female work force. And traveling with male associates is an even smaller problem with less than 5% of the female population mentioning this as a difficulty. Interestingly, there is an inverse relationship between education and this latter problem; the more education, the less problem traveling with male associates presents. For college educated females this problem is nearly non-existent. Less than 1% of the college graduates report this as a problem.

As the data demonstrates, sex-related problems do exist, but are not as preponderant as are many other types of problems. About 4% of all women report sexual harassment as an on-the-job problem. Females with lower levels of education more often experience sexual harassment than do more educated females. However, the more educated women more frequently experience job discrimination. As some suggest, if women are victims in our society, it might be concluded that the form of victimization doesn't disappear, but merely changes form, as one passes through different educational levels.

Aspects of Work Causing Dissatisfaction

For working women there are numerous sources of work dissatisfaction. Table 5 shows the extent to which the repondents are dissatisfied with certain aspects of their work.

TABLE 5
Aspects of Work Causing Dissatisfaction

Opportunity for promotion	50.4%
Salary	46.8%
Availability of training programs	42.8%
Availability of job counseling	37.2%
Sufficient leisure time	35.3%
Means of solving job problems	33.4%
Retirement benefits	29.3%
Morale of co-workers	29.1%
Recognition of work	28.3%
Use of my skills	27.1%
Health Benefits	25.0%
Supervisor's managerial skills	23.8%
Vacation, personal leave	20.5%
Working conditions	19.6%
Hours	16.1%
Actual work	15.0%
Treatment by boss	14.7%
Interest in job	14.3%
Relations with co-workers	8.9%

For women in general, opportunity for promotion and salary were the foremost sources of dissatisifaction. Nearly half of all women feel dissatisfied with their salaries and with the opportunities they have for promotion. Availability of training programs follows closely; about 43% express dissatisfaction with this aspect of their work. Those most dissatisfied with salary, promotional opportunities and availability of training were those who attended a few years of college, but didn't graduate. See Table A-10 of the Appendix.

More than a third of all women were dissatisfied with availability of job counseling, sufficient leisure time, and means of solving job problems. And between 20% and 30% were dissatisfied with the use of their skills, morale of co-workers, retirement benefits, recognition of their work, health benefits, vacation and personal leave, and supervisor's managerial abilities.

Aspects of work in which the fewest women expressed dissatisfaction were: hours (16.1%), interest in the job (14.3%), treatment by boss (14.7%), the actual work (15%) and relations with co-workers (8.9%).

In keeping with information already presented, those women with eight years or less of formal education had the least concern or dissatisfaction

with most aspects of their work. The same generally holds true for the most educated, the college graduates. And those with middle levels of educations expressed the most dissatisfaction with various aspects of their work, as demonstrated above. However, it is fascinating to observe how women in the middle educational levels vary on identifying dissatisfying aspects of their own work.

The following pattern occurs:

1. Those most dissatisfied with concrete characteristics of the job are those with some high school. As a group they are most dissatisfied with hours, working conditions, and retirement benefits. This likely reflects conditions attached to their particular type of employment.
2. The problem which most afflicts high school graduates concerns the atmosphere of the working situation and interpersonal relations in the workplace. The problems most often mentioned are: treatment by boss, relations with co-workers, morale of co-workers, supervisor's managerial abilities, recognition of work, and ways of solving job problems. These types of problems may well reflect a familiar atmosphere found within secretarial pools, or large-scale clerical divisions.
3. As already stated, those with some college were most dissatisfied with their actual work, as shown by the percentage indicating unhappiness with: opportunity for promotion, availability of training programs, salary, use of skills, and availability of job counseling.

Conclusions: Aspects of Work and Education

A sizeable portion of working women are dissatisfied with their jobs and would welcome on-the-job counseling or referral to other jobs. There is a substantial demand by women for training programs.

In addition, many women are not so dissatisfied with their work, as with the office environment, including morale of co-workers, supervisor's managerial abilities, means of solving on-the-job problems, recognition of work and treatment by boss. Improvement of the working atmospheres and the effective provision of appropriate career incentives could be methods of minimizing turn-over rates.

In view of the number of women experiencing difficulty as a result of the dual responsibility of family and job, the plea for more part-time and flex-time jobs is becoming ever more audible.

For most of the specific problems discussed within this chapter, it can generally be stated that women with the highest and lowest levels of education have the least problems, and therefore the least need for work-related services. Those with middle levels of education have the most problems and subsequently feel the greatest need for services. Interestingly, within the middle levels of education, those with high school educations have less need for work-related services than those with slightly higher or lower levels of education.

IV. JOB TRAINING INTERESTS

Respondents were polled regarding their interest in job training, which generally included broad categories of occupational attachment, rather than specific jobs. One exception, though, was "professional training", which was concretely defined as "law, medicine, CPA".

Occupational Areas of Interest by Educational Level

The areas of supervisory work and public relations interested more women than other career choices with more than half the respondents indicating a desire to be trained in each field. Ranked in descending order, other occupational areas of interest are secretarial and professional fields, followed by sales work. See the figures contained in Table 6.

TABLE 6
Occupational Areas of Interest

<u>Job Areas</u>	<u>Total</u>
Supervisory	54.4%
Public Relations	53.7%
Secretarial	47.8%
Professional	42.6%
Sales Work	40.3%
Nurse/LPN/Hospital Aide	30.0%
Child-care Provision	27.9%
Teaching	23.8%
Forestry	20.8%
Agriculture	20.5%
Building Trades	15.9%
Waitress	12.5%
Mechanical/Electrical Trades	12.2%
Factory/Mill Work	10.7%

*These figures do not total 100%, since respondents may check more than one area of interest.

Table A-11 of the Appendix contains the same information broken down by education levels. From this data, it is apparent, though not surprising, that women with the higher levels of education are most interested in professional training and public relations, while women with middle levels of education are most interested in secretarial and sales training.

Nursing and jobs in the child care field rank next in popularity (28-30%), followed by teaching (24%), which, in turn, is followed closely by forestry and agriculture (each about 21%). It may surprise some to see forestry and agriculture occupations ranked almost as appealing as teaching.

Training in building trades interests about 16% of Montana women, outranking waitressing (12.5%). The latter is followed closely by mechanical/ electrical training (12.2%) and factory/mill work (10.7%).

Interest in building trades, factory/mill work, waitressing, and nursing is found disproportionately more often among those with some high school, but mechanical/electrical, child care provision, agriculture and forestry appear to interest various educational levels, as shown on Table A-11 in the Appendix.

Non-Traditional Work

Non-traditional work is generally defined as work women don't do or haven't usually done in the past. However, because women are now aspiring to work in areas different than in the past, the amount of training interest in some of these non-traditional areas was measured.

Areas of work considered non-traditional within this study are: supervision, professional, forestry, agriculture, building trades/construction, mechanical/ electrical trades and factory/mill work. As might be expected, most occupations traditionally considered to be "women's work" hold the most interest for women, as shown in Table 6 (teaching, nursing, secretarial/clerical, sales and child care provision). However, it is noteworthy that women rank highly the desire to be trained in some non-traditional areas --- namely, law/medicine/accounting, public relations and supervisory positions. In fact, the preceding table shows that of all non-traditional areas, women are most interested in training for supervisory positions followed by training interest in professional work, such as medicine, law, CPA, and the like.

There is a moderate amount of interest, which is expressed by approximately a fifth of all respondents, for training in forestry and agriculture-type positions; less interest is shown in training for construction, mechanical/ electrical trades or factory/mill work.

Non-traditional Work by Age Group

An inverse relationship exists between age and interest in non-traditional training. Younger women have greater interest in training in non-traditional areas than do older women. This interest decreases with each successive age decade for each of the non-traditional areas of work, except for factory/ mill work. See Table 7 which follows.

TABLE 7
Interest in Non-Traditional Training by Age¹

	Total Women	20's or less	30's	40's	50's	60's Older		
Supervision	54.6	67.2	64.9	59.9	45.7	18.1	χ^2 ***	C=.28514
Professional	42.8	61.4	52.8	41.4	24.5	10.5	χ^2 ***	C=.26814
Forestry	21.0	41.2	18.5	17.5	7.2	2.8	χ^2 ***	C=.34463
Agriculture	21.3	37.3	19.5	12.4	12.4	5.0	χ^2 ***	C=.30043
Building Trades/ Construction	16.0	27.6	16.3	12.5	8.4	3.5	χ^2 ***	C=.24600
Mechanical or Electrical Trades	12.1	23.6	11.3	7.2	5.3	4.3	χ^2 ***	C=.26229
Factory or Mill Work	11.2	15.0	7.9	14.4	11.5	4.9	χ^2 ***	C=.15486

1 = interest in measured by summation of (yes) and (maybe) responses on each item. Calculation of C is based upon the original 3 X 7 table from which these results have been extracted.

χ^2 significance: * .05
** .01
*** .001

Older women, like women in general, have the greatest interest in training for supervisory and professional fields, respectively. For supervisory positions, the greatest decline in interest occurs after the age of fifty. For example, those in their fifties still indicate a moderate interest (46%) in training for supervisory positions while those in their sixties show much less interest (18%) in this type of training (See Table 7).

However interest in professional training declines most markedly after the forties, although there is still some interest among older women. For example, 41% of the women in their forties still have interest in professional training, if obtainable; but 25% of those in their fifties would have the same interest.

For the areas of forestry, agriculture, building construction and mechanical training, training interest is greatest among those under thirty years of age and declines most rapidly after age thirty. With each age decade the percentage of women interested in these types of training further diminishes.

For forestry, agriculture, mechanical/electrical and factory/mill occupations, the greatest training interest is found among respondents in their twenties; this interest diminished abruptly by age thirty. Only about half as many women in the thirty-year-old group compared to the twenty-year-old group maintain an interest in job training for these non-traditional areas. Job training interest in forestry, agriculture and mechanical/electrical fields continues to decrease as age increases. The interest in mill work, incidently, does not follow the same pattern exhibited by other fields, since training interest remains at relatively the same level until age sixty.

Non-traditional Work by Race

Training for non-traditional work is more appealing to non-white women than to white women in Montana. There is particular interest among minority women for training in the professions as well as for training in building trades and construction. In each of the other non-traditional areas of work (supervisory positions, forestry, agriculture, mechanical/ electrical, factory/mill work), there also is more training interest among non-white women than among white women. For Montana, non-white women can be equated to Native American women, as they are the only sizable racial minority in the State. (See Table 8.)

TABLE 8
INTEREST IN NON-TRADITIONAL TRAINING AND RACE¹
Non-Traditional Employment Interest and Race

	<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>WHITE</u>	<u>NON-WHITE</u>	
Supervision	54.4	54.2	56.1	χ^2_{***} C=.10250
Professional	43.1	42.0	64.4	
Forestry	21.2	21.1	23.6	χ^2^* C=.08057
Agriculture	20.7	20.3	28.6	
Building Trades	16.4	15.2	27.9	
Mechanical or Electrical	12.6	12.0	15.6	
Factory or Mill	11.1	10.8	18.6	

¹Interest is equivalent to a (yes) or (maybe) response on each item. C is based upon a 3 X 2 table from which the above figures are extracted.

χ^2 Significance: * = .05
** = .005
*** = .001

Interest in Non-Traditional Jobs Training and Size of Community

The type of non-traditional job training and size of community are associated in a few important ways. First, there is considerably more

interest among women from larger communities than from smaller communities in training for either professional jobs or supervisory positions. For example, more than 60% of the women who reside in communities with populations over 10,000 have an interest in training for a supervisory position, while about 49% of those in communities under 2500 have the same interest. This information is contained in Table 9.

TABLE 9
Interest in Non-Traditional Job Training
and Size of Community

	<u>Total</u>	<u>Less than 2500</u>	<u>2550- 4900</u>	<u>5000- 9999</u>	<u>More than 10,000</u>
Supervision	55.0	48.8	51.7	54.4	60.8 χ^2 * C=.12513
Professional	43.0	39.1	46.2	44.1	44.3
Forestry	21.1	26.6	20.0	18.5	18.3
Agriculture	20.6	31.5	18.6	18.7	14.0 χ^2 *** C=.20291
Building Trades	16.4	19.2	22.4	16.3	12.2
Mechanical/ Electrical	12.5	13.9	14.9	13.1	10.4
Factory or Mill	11.2	14.5	15.5	8.8	8.0 χ^2 * C=.11459 C=.21992

χ^2 Significance

- * = .05
- ** = .01
- *** = .001

Not surprisingly, respondents from the most rural communities (under 2500) have the most interest in training for agricultural occupations; nearly a third of these rural women have this training interest, compared to 14% of those residing in the largest Montana communities (communities with populations over 10,000).

Generally speaking, women from smaller communities are more positively inclined toward training in non-traditional areas such as forestry, agriculture, building trades, mechanical/electrical and factory or mill work than are women from larger communities, as clearly demonstrated by Table 9.

Conclusions: Job Training Interest

Women have training interest in many occupational areas, both traditional and non-traditional. In general, traditional areas of work, such as secretar-

ial, teaching, nursing and sales, hold the most appeal for women. However, several non-traditional areas are of considerable interest to women --- namely, the professions and supervisory positions. These latter two areas usually require either extensive education (the professions) or accumulating experience (supervision). It would be an interesting inquiry to determine comparatively the usefulness of a professional education versus accumulated experience; although an even more interesting inquiry would be one regarding the accessibility of education and experience. Entry into a craft or trade also could be compared with the usefulness of educational attainment, since it has been suggested that a professional education is more easily acquired by minorities and women than entry into the ranks of a non-traditional craft or trade.

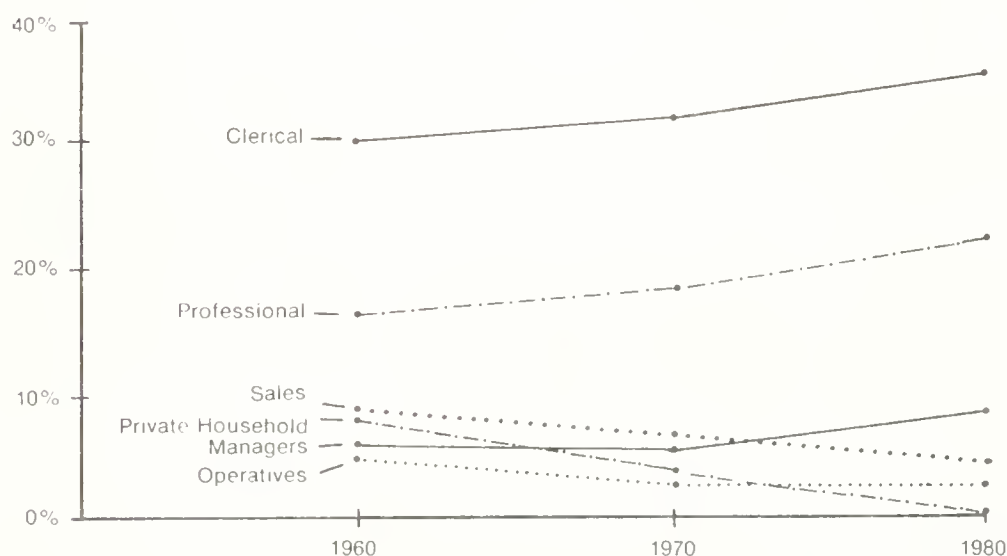
In spite of a high interest shown for the non-traditional work areas just discussed, there still remains a moderate number of women exhibiting interest in the non-traditional areas of forestry, agriculture, building trades, mechanical/electrical trades and factory/mill work. Younger women have a greater interest in non-traditional work than do older women, while non-white women have greater interest than white women in non-traditional fields. Those from urban areas have more interest in "white collar" non-traditional fields, while those from smaller, more rural communities have more interest in "blue collar" non-traditional areas of work.

V. WOMEN AND OCCUPATIONAL ATTACHMENT

The following information reports the occupations in which the respondents said they were working at the time of the survey. From Table 10, it is obvious that the greatest number, a third of all employed women, are employed as clerical workers. This group is followed by the number of women in professional, technical and related areas, and followed in turn by the number of women employed in services. The number of women employed in crafts, operatives and transportation fields is conspicuously small. (See Table 10.)

When this information is compared to occupational data for women collected by the 1960 and 1970 censuses (see Tables A-12 and A-13 in the Appendix) there are trends showing both increases and decreases in the percentage of women employed in particular occupational areas. As measured by this survey, there appears to be a substantial increase in the proportion of women in professional, technical and related areas. Similarly, there is an increase in the proportion of women employed as managers and administrators. These increases possibly can be attributed to the great strides women have made in education within the last decade. In some non-traditional areas, which are less dependent on educational requirements, there have been some rather small increases in the proportion of women employed. For example, there have been minute increases in the percentage of women in crafts and transportation. Conversely, there has been a slight increase in the percentage of women employed as operatives.

GRAPH 3
MONTANA
OCCUPATIONAL ATTACHMENT OF EMPLOYED FEMALES



In the traditional area of clerical work, there is a slight increase in the percentage of women employed, while in the traditional areas of service and private household workers, there has been a decrease in female employment.

TABLE 10
MONTANA

OCCUPATIONAL ATTACHMENT OF EMPLOYED FEMALES*
(1978 Survey of Montana Women)

<u>OCCUPATIONAL AREA</u>	<u>% WOMEN EMPLOYED/1978</u>
Professional, Technical & Related	22.8%
Nonfarm Managers and Administrators	9.0%
Farm Workers	1.0%
Nonfarm Laborers	1.0%
Sales Workers	5.4%
Clerical Workers	34.0%
Craftsmen, Foremen & Related	1.4%
Operatives, Except Transport	1.8%
Transport Equipment Operatives	1.2%
Service Workers, Except Private Household	15.0%
Cleaning & Food Service Workers	(9.5%)
Protective Service Workers	(0.3%)
Personal, Health, and other Service Workers	(5.2%)
Private Household Workers	1.0%
Occupations Not Reported	6.5%
	<u>100.0%</u>
	(N = 588)

*Data is based upon information for women 18 years and older in Montana, as determined by a survey in the Fall of 1978.

VI. NON-EMPLOYED WOMEN

As mentioned earlier in this report, Table 1 shows that nearly half of all women in this state work outside their home, and half do not. This finding is consistent with national figures on women's employment. The following data provides insight into the needs and attitudes of women who do not work outside the home, and their reasons for not working and/or their desire to begin working. The role of child care facilities also is briefly discussed.

Non-working Women Who Choose Not to Work

The majority (two-thirds) of non-employed women do not plan to seek employment within the next twelve months, as shown on Table A-14 in the Appendix. The most common reasons cited for not seeking work outside the home include: wanting to be a full-time homemaker, not wanting to work outside the home, and preferring to care for one's own children. Contained below is the actual breakdown of home-related reasons for not taking outside employment.

TABLE 11
Reasons for not Planning to Seek Employment within the Next Twelve Months

<u>Reason</u>	<u>Percent*</u>
Homemaking	40.3%
Can't find child care	2.2%
Want to care for kids	24.7%
Don't want to work	29.2%
Lack of part-time jobs	6.7%

*The column does not total 100% because respondents could choose more than one reason.

Difficulty in finding child care facilities is not considered a prominent reason for staying home. It appears to be a preference, not lack of supporting facilities, which is the deciding factor for these women. This finding, however, should not be confused with the effect of children on a woman's employment status.

The data on Table A-15 in the Appendix suggests that children indeed are a factor, although not a total determinant, of women's employment status. Women with children, particularly young children, are employed full-time less often than are women without children. And the greater the number of children, and the younger the children, the less likelihood there is of a working mother. (See Tables A-15, A-16 and A-17 in the Appendix.)

Although these appear to be obvious findings, it could be reasoned, conversely, that families with children, particularly many children, have additional financial obligations requiring a homemaker to seek employment outside the home. This factor probably has affected these tabulations, but its effect is not strong enough to cancel out the primary association.

Therefore, even though the presence, number and ages of children are partial factors affecting a woman's employment status, these factors exist apart from the effect availability of child care services has on employability.

Non-working Women Wanting to Work

Of the women who are not currently employed, about a third are considering looking for work during the next year, as the data on Table A-14 suggests.

Of these unemployed women who state they intend to seek employment, about half request additional training and the remaining half state that training is not needed. When asked whether they would take an interesting job if it were offered, these women state they would accept it if they felt they could do it and if the wages and location were satisfactory. It is interesting to note, however, that the consideration of whether they could do a job is a bigger concern than such specifics as wage and location. Other considerations in accepting a job are the agreement of a husband and the ability to find child care. (Tables A-18 and A-19 in the Appendix contain the information discussed in this chapter.)

Child Care Responsibilities

Of those who potentially may go to work, about a third will need child care services, as shown in Table 12.

TABLE 12
Need for Child Care Services Among Those Intending
to Seek Employment Within the Next Twelve Months

If you accepted a job, would you need child care?

YES	31.5%	
NO	68.5%	
	<u>100.0%</u>	(N=232)

Stated differently, about 9% to 10% of all non-working women will need child care services within the coming year (one-third of one-third intend to seek employment, and have a child care need). Women with children, who are contemplating employment, have an average of two children. The precise ratio is 1.8 children per woman.

Ratio of children per mother

$$\frac{123}{69} = 1.8$$

To pinpoint geographic locals most in need of child care services, two questions must be asked, since, taken together, they provide an answer. First, where are child care services most needed? Second, where are child care services most lacking? The geographic areas exhibiting the greatest difference between actual need and lack of service provision are those areas most needing child care services. Table 13 shows the need for child care services by community size and Table 14 shows the lack of child care provision by community size. As Table 13 shows, unemployed women's need for this service is not related to the size of their community. The per-centage needing this service is rather uniform across various-size communities.

TABLE 13
Percentage needing child care by community size

Communities:

Under 2500	23.1%	
2500-4999	27.7%	
5000-9999	21.5%	
10,000 +	27.7%	
	<u>100.0%</u>	(N=65)

However, a different pattern is manifest for those who cannot find child care. Those in the most rural areas have the greatest absence of service provision. As evidenced by Table 14 below, half of those not able to find child care reside in communities of less than 2500 people, while the remaining half of those not able to find child care are found distributed throughout all other sizes of communities. Clearly, the greatest need for services, as measured by the difference between reported need and existing services, is found in the most rural communities of Montana.

TABLE 14
Lack of Child Care and Community Size

Communities:

Under 2500	50.0%
2500-4999	18.8%
5000-9999	12.5%
10,000 +	18.8%
	<u>100.0%</u>

Conclusions: Non-employed Women

Most non-employed women do not plan to seek employment; this is primarily a result of their preference for homemaking activities. Those that do plan to seek employment are concerned with their ability to perform jobs, as can be seen by the fact that half of the women request additional

training. And a substantial number of women will need child care services in order to go to work.

The greatest lack of child care services exists in the smallest communities of the state.

VII. DISPLACED HOMEMAKERS

More attention is now being directed toward the particular employment disadvantages of the displaced homemaker. These women withdrew from the labor market for seven or more years due to full-time participation in homemaking and child-rearing. Due to separation, divorce or a spouse's death, they are thrust back upon the job market to provide for themselves without the benefit of recent employment experience or up-to-date skills. Often they are victims of age discrimination in the job market, yet they are not old enough to collect retirement benefits.

From Table 15 we can see that sixteen percent of all women were formerly married. About a third of these women (or 5% of all women) meet the criteria of having been a homemaker for seven or more years, yet have not reached retirement age.

TABLE 15
Marital Status

Never Married	8.3%	
Currently Married	73.9%	
Widowed	8.8%)	
Separated	1.4%)	= 16.2%
Divorced	6.0%)	
Living Together	1.5%	
	<u>100.0%</u>	

Thus, about 5% of all women in Montana are characterized by the conditions described above and are delineated as displaced homemakers. This percentage represents about 12,600 women in Montana. This is likely a minimal estimate because women not answering any one of the items included within the definition of a displaced homemaker have not been included in this sub-group analysis.

Job Training Interests

When displaced homemakers were questioned regarding their interest in job training, more than half answered affirmatively. As Table 16 demonstrates, 53% replied either a "yes" or "maybe" to the question on job training interest.

TABLE 16
Are you interested in training for a new profession?

Yes	34.4%	
Maybe	18.8%	
No	46.9%	
Total	<u>100.0%</u>	(N=65)

This information should not be construed conversely to mean that those not interested in job training are not interested in employment, since, as Table 18 indicates, about 70% are already engaged in some type of employment-related activities. Furthermore, many displaced homemakers have attained a relatively high level of education (Table 20), they probably lack an accompanying high level of job experience due to their withdrawal from the job market. This lack of experience, in turn, continues to put them at a comparative disadvantage with their careers.

TABLE 17
Are you planning to seek employment within
the next twelve months?

Yes	13.9%	
No	16.9%	
Not Applicable; Already Employed	69.2%	
	<u>100.0%</u>	(N=65)

When this same group of women was polled regarding their job training interests, it was discovered that the greatest number were interested in either public relations or secretarial work. Nearly half of all displaced homemakers indicated a potential interest in training for these two areas. (See Table 18).

More than a quarter of all displaced homemakers were favorably disposed toward training in sales work, child care provision, nurse/LPN, teaching or a profession, as shown on Table 18. As the table also shows, nearly a fifth of this group had interest in the non-traditional areas of construction trades, forestry and agriculture, followed closely by factory/mill work and mechanical/electrical work.

However, displaced homemakers essentially have the same types of training interests as do other women in the state, although displaced homemakers do not aspire toward professional training as much as do women in general, and they have somewhat more interest than other women have in blue-collar, non-traditional occupations such as construction, mill work and mechanical/electrical trades. The main difference may be that the need of displaced homemakers for this training is more acute.

TABLE 18
Displaced Homemakers and Interest in Areas of Job Training*

Public Relations	51.8%
Secretarial	45.3%
Sales Work	34.6%
Child Care Provision	31.5%
Nurse/LPN	29.9%
Teaching	27.4%
Professional	26.4%
Construction Trades	21.8%
Forestry	20.4%
Agriculture	20.0%
Factory/Mill	16.7%
Mechanical/Electrical	16.3%
Waitress	9.4%

(N=65)

*The column does not total 100%, because respondents could choose more than one response.

Demographic Characteristics of Displaced Homemakers

Race

When displaced homemakers are identified by race, it is found that there is a higher prevalence among non-whites than among whites. See Table 19.

TABLE 19
Displaced Homemakers by Race

Whites	84.1%	
Non-whites	15.9%	
Total	100.0%	(N=65)

This information is more meaningful when it is remembered that less than 5% of the state's population is non-white, yet the latter account for more than 15% of the state's displaced homemakers. Furthermore, the predicament of being a displaced homemaker, coupled with minority group status, should merit special consideration.

Education

Table 20 contains the educational breakdowns for displaced homemakers as well as for all women in Montana.

TABLE 20

Education

	<u>Displaced Homemakers</u>	<u>All Women</u>
8 years or less	4.9%	4.9%
Some High School	24.6%	6.1%
Completed High School	31.1%	35.5%
Some College	23.0%	26.4%
Completed College	16.4%	27.1%
Total	100.0% (N=65)	100.0% (N=591)

Although no educational level immunizes one against becoming a displaced homemaker, the preceding table indicates that those with the lowest level of education (8 years or less) constitute only 5% of all displaced homemakers - the same proportion they represent in the population. The bulk, 80% of all displaced homemakers, have educations ranging from some high school to some college. Furthermore, those with some high school are greatly over-represented. An interesting correlation between displaced homemaking and an uncompleted high school education is suggested. Those who have "completed college" are substantially under-represented among displaced homemakers.

Size of Community

Displaced homemakers reside in communities of all sizes. However, they most likely reside in either the smallest communities (under 2,500) or the most urban areas of the state (over 10,000). They are less likely to be found in (1) communities ranging from 2,500 - 4,900 in population, and (2) communities ranging from 5,000 - 9,999 in population. The following table contains this data.

TABLE 21

Community Size of Displaced Homemakers

Under 2500	34.4%
2500 - 4999	14.8%
5000 - 9999	13.1%
10,000 or more	37.7%
Total	100.0% (N=65)

Without drawing inferences concerning the stability of middle-sized towns it should be remembered that the trend in this state, as elsewhere, is an ongoing rural-to-urban migration. Thus, even though the initial location of displacement may be unknown - the current location of the individual in need of a relevant service is known.

Income

As can be seen in Table 22, women in the lowest income brackets are more interested in job training for most occupations than are other women. This is particularly true for women whose family income is less than \$6,000. These women express more interest than do other women in training for construction trades, forestry, factory or mill work, agriculture, mechanical/electrical, child care provision, secretarial, saleswork, waitress, and nurse/LPN work. This relationship, however, is not true for training interest in professions, supervisory, teaching, and public relations. In these areas either the magnitude of interest remains stable across various income brackets or there is more interest among the highest income brackets, such as is the case for training in professional occupations or teaching.

TABLE 22
Income And Job Training Interest*

		\$3,000 Under Total \$3,000	\$6,000 to \$5,999	\$8,000 to \$7,999	\$10,000 to \$9,999	\$13,000 to \$12,999	\$16,000 to \$15,999	or More
Professional	42.9	48.8	48.5	54.1	39.1	35.9	50.0	33.0
Teaching	33.7	39.6	21.0	41.0	34.4	35.6	55.6	35.0
Construction								
Trades	16.2	19.3	21.5	17.9	10.6	18.7	15.4	10.0
Forestry	21.1	25.8	26.9	24.1	19.7	18.7	17.9	10.0
Factory or								
Mill	11.1	12.4	13.0	8.4	3.1	7.8	2.6	6.7
Agriculture	20.7	30.0	23.9	19.1	15.2	17.5	20.5	6.9
Mechanical /								
Electrical	12.5	16.3	15.8	16.7	7.6	7.9	5.1	0.0
Child Care								
Provision	27.9	34.8	22.2	25.3	25.4	14.3	17.9	13.8
Secretary	47.8	60.0	54.2	62.8	33.3	32.3	26.3	20.0
Sales	40.4	51.0	43.3	36.8	17.6	26.2	33.3	26.7
Waitress	13.4	22.6	10.7	6.0	9.1	1.6	10.3	10.0
Nurse / LPN	31.3	36.0	41.6	21.7	19.7	18.2	17.5	21.4
Public								
Relations	53.1	60.4	61.8	56.0	52.2	55.2	60.0	51.5

* Neither rows nor columns are additive

Conclusions: Displaced Homemakers

Displaced homemakers are becoming a more and more visible entity within our society, and in view of the ever-increasing number of marital dissolutions, the number of displaced homemakers, likewise, can be expected to increase. Displaced homemakers are favorably inclined toward job training, and although they exist within all segments of our society, they are

over-represented among the non-white minority, and among those who were high-school drop-outs. They are most likely found in extremely rural communities (under 2500 in population) and the most populous communities (over 10,000 in population). These individuals are most inclined toward the types of training offered by government programs such as CETA and WIN, which include training in largely traditional occupations such as secretarial/clerical work, although substantial training interest in other areas exists.

VIII. BATTERED WOMEN

Family violence is finally gaining recognition as a prevalent problem within the United States. For some time, child abuse has been recognized, and attempts to deal with it have been implemented, but only recently has spouse abuse begun to be taken seriously. There are few studies which have endeavored to measure the prevalence of spouse abuse and for the most part, these findings are at wide variance with one another. This is understandable considering the delicacy of the subject and different methods of measurement used.

Action programs, which deal specifically with abused victims, generally estimate a larger prevalence of spouse abuse than do polls, but their data is usually obtained through the victims themselves, and thus there is no non-abused segment for comparison. Polls, conversely, may underestimate the incidence of spouse abuse given the impersonal nature of this method of data collection; another difficulty is the large number of respondents necessary to provide an accurate picture of this subgroup within the population.

Acknowledging the latter limitations, which are inherent in any poll, the data presented here is not infallible. However, it does represent the largest single inquiry into this type of problem with a scientific sample, at least for this state. This poll, in turn, allows for the projection of prevalence rates to the statewide population.

As the tabulations on the following table show, approximately 1% of the female population report currently being beaten and another 5.5% report having been beaten in the past. About 11% of the respondents did not answer this question. (See Table 23.)

TABLE 23
Percent of Battered Women

Do you have the problem of a husband or partner who violently beats you?

Yes - - - - -	1.0%
No, not now, but at one time - - - - -	5.4%
No - - - - -	82.9%
No Answer - - - - -	10.8%
Total - - - - -	100.0% (N=1359)

The number of non-responses representing battered women is unknown. Since 83% of all women claim definitely not to have been beaten and 6.5% claim either past or present beating situations, the estimate for the incidence of this problem could range anywhere from 6.5% to 18.5% of the population. It is the estimate of this research that approximately 7% to 8% of the female population is or has been battered.*

* This estimate is based upon commonalities between non-respondents and battered women, as compared to other segments of the sample.

A Profile of Battered Women

Some characteristics of the battered woman, compared to the non-battered, are examined as follows.

A. Self-Confidence

As some psychological studies already report, and our findings further support, a salient characteristic of the battered woman is a lack of self-confidence. Battered women report a greater problem with lack of self-confidence than do their unbeaten counterparts. Whether this problem results from living in a violent family setting or whether the victim's personality traits unknowingly attract her to an abusive situation is not the inquiry of this report. The fact remains that the battered woman lacks self-confidence to a much greater degree than does the non-battered woman. Table 24 clearly illustrates the point of the present discussion.

TABLE 24
Women Having a Problem With Self-Confidence

	<u>Great Problem</u>	<u>Moderate Problem</u>	<u>Slight Problem</u>	<u>No Problem</u>	<u>Total</u>
Battered Women	25.0%	25.0%	37.5%	12.5%	100%
Formerly Battered Women	0.0%	25.0%	26.9%	48.1%	100%
Non-Battered Women	4.0%	12.5%	28.7%	54.1%	100%

(N=1359)

Table 24 states that half of all battered women have a substantial* problem with self-confidence and a fourth of all formerly battered women have this problem. By contrast, approximately a sixth of all non-battered women feel that their lack of self-confidence is a problem. One 17-year-old woman recalls the effect battering had on her: "It was nothing but cursing and beatings I received. I stood it as long as I could and then I divorced him. It took me five years to overcome the feeling of inferiority that I acquired."

Age

Although battering affects women of all ages, it is most prevalent among younger women; in particular, active battering situations affect younger women to a greater extent than older women. All of those currently being battered are in their twenties or thirties, as exhibited on Table 25. Even for women who were formerly battered, two-thirds are still only in their twenties and thirties with the remaining third primarily in their forties and fifties. No information exists to indicate the actual date(s) these batterings occurred.

*"Substantial problem" is defined as either a "high" or "medium" ranking on a four-point scale.

TABLE 25
Battering and Age

	<u>20's or less</u>	<u>30's</u>	<u>40's</u>	<u>50's</u>	<u>60's or Older</u>	<u>Total</u>
Battered Women	54.6%	27.3%	9.1%	9.1%	0.0%	= 100%
Formerly Battered Women	30.4%	29.0%	14.5%	14.5%	11.5%	= 100%
Non-Battered Women	25.3%	20.8%	16.2%	18.3%	19.3%	= 100%

(N=1359)

The meaning associated with this data is not obvious. The high incidence among young women suggests this type of violence is on the increase, such as has been observed with other forms of violence such as murder and rape. For even if battering situations were eliminated over time, the formerly battered should still be enumerated; unless, of course, older women are more reluctant to admit having experienced this type of familial violence.

Children and Battering

There definitely seems to be a correlation between having children under 18 years old in the home, and being beaten. About 60% of all battered women have minor children. The same proportion holds for formerly battered women, of whom 60% also have minor children. Women who are not battered are less likely to have minor children, if they do, they have fewer of them. (See Table 26.)

TABLE 26
Battering by Number of Minor Children

	<u>Number of Minor Children</u>						<u>Total</u>
	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5 or more</u>	
Battered Women	38.5%	30.8%	15.4%	7.7%	7.7%	0.0%	100%
Formerly Battered Women	39.2%	18.9%	21.6%	12.2%	5.4%	2.8%	100%
Non-Battered Women	52.8%	16.7%	17.2%	7.8%	3.7%	1.8%	100%

(N = 1359)

When children are involved in a battering situation, they too, probably are members of a family suffering from spouse abuse. It is sometimes asked whether men who beat their wives are the same as those who beat their

children and vice versa, and there are divergent lines of thought on this question. When items indicative of these two types of behavior are cross-tabulated in this study, results are as follows. (See Table 27.)

TABLE 27
Spouse Abuse & Child Abuse

	<u>Battered Children</u>	<u>Formerly Battered Children</u>	<u>Non-Battered Children</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Battered Women	33.3%	25.0%	41.7%	100%
Formerly Battered Women	2.8%	20.8%	76.4%	100%
Non-Battered Women	0.2%	0.5%	99.3%	100%

(N = 1359)

χ^2 *** C = .5103

Somers D = .71196 Beat Wife (Independent)

Somers D = .28157 Beat Kids (Independent)

This finding confirms that those beating their wives are very likely beating their children. If a wife is being beaten, there is a high probability that children are being beaten. For example, in the latter situation the chances are 1 in 3 that the child is being beaten, whereas, for the public at large, 1 in 30 children is being beaten.

The predictive value of this association however, is strongest in the opposite direction. Consequently if a child is being beaten by a male figure, one can be almost certain that their mother is also being beaten. If it is known that a child is beaten, chances are ten times greater that the mother is also being beaten than if this were not known.

These findings tend to verify that family violence appears to be non-specific, even though mothers may often be targets for violence at lower thresholds than are children. Where one victim of family violence is found, there are likely to be other victims as well.

Education and Income

No clear-cut association between the level of education and battered victims was discovered. Battering appeared to be non-discriminatory, afflicting victims within various educational categories. However, if the educational level of the batterer were to be measured, different results might be found.

Correlations between battering and income also did not reveal any particular pattern. (See Table A-20.)

Race

Most battering in this state occurs among white women, because most of Montana's women are white. However, the proportion of non-white women being beaten is much greater than the proportion of white women being beaten. More than 20% of all minority women have been or are victims of battering compared to 6.5% of the white sector. Although a viable explanation lies with cultural differences, disproportionate stresses placed upon minority families should not be overlooked as a contributing factor. (See Table 28.)

TABLE 28
Battering and Race

	<u>White</u>	<u>Non-White</u>	
Battered Women	.9%	2.1%	
Formerly Battered Women	5.6%	18.8%	
Non-Battered Women	93.5%	79.2%	
Total	100.0%	100.0%	(N=1208)

Size of Community

There is no definite association between the size of community and battering. Battering is reported at about the same frequency in various sizes of communities. For victims in the extremely rural areas, the problem is probably most desperate, however, because of the absence of any type of supportive services. One battered woman explains, "I would never have let the situation go on as long as I did had I not been completely isolated in a remote rural community and stone broke". (See Table 29 for a correlation of battering and community size.)

TABLE 29
Battering and Community Size

	<u>Under 2500</u>	<u>2500- 4999</u>	<u>5000- 9999</u>	<u>10,000 or more</u>	
Battered Women	1.7%	.6%	2.0%	0.4%	
Formerly Battered Women	6.4%	6.8%	2.6%	6.2%	
Non Battered Women	91.9%	92.6%	95.4%	93.4%	(N=1156)
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Conclusions: Battered Women

Battered women constitute a sizeable group within our population. Furthermore, it is suggested by the data that this type of violence is on the increase. Battered women have a greater problem with self-confidence

than do non-battered women, which has implications regarding job performance and employability. Former victims often report that gainful employment would have provided an exit from such a situation.

Although battered women are found in all segments of our society, they are somewhat overrepresented among non-white minorities, and among younger women, particularly younger women with small children at home. Battering occurs at a similar rate in all size communities and across various income and educational brackets.

IX. CONCLUSIONS: WOMEN AND WORK SURVEY

This "Survey of Women and Work" was made possible through a U.S. Department of Labor grant, which was received and administered by the Women's Bureau of the Montana Department of Labor and Industry. This statewide survey was conducted by mailing questionnaires to a random sample of 2,000 women of which 70% participated by returning the questionnaire.

The heart of the study is the description and analysis of women's employment related needs; e.g., service needed to gain employment, training interests, dissatisfying aspects of jobs. The most salient needs, as reported by half the respondents, deal with actually obtaining jobs; e.g., referral to job openings, referral to apprenticeship programs and promotional opportunities. There is moderate need, as reported by a third of the women, for assistance with such items including counseling for on-the-job problems and counseling regarding suitable occupations.

The dual responsibility of homemaking and employment is often cited as a concern by working women. Two-thirds of the non-working women do not plan to seek employment in the near future. This decision appears to be a personal choice, rather than resulting from the absence of supportive facilities or suitable jobs.

Women, in general, are keenly interested in training programs. Although their interest tends to gravitate along traditionally female lines of employment, there is tremendous interest in training for professional jobs and supervisory/ management positions. The proportion of women now working in these areas is on the increase, as measured against that of past decades. Also, substantial numbers of women have interests in the non-traditional "blue-collar" occupational areas of construction, agriculture and forestry. The types of training interest varies with age, education, race and community size of respondents.

Displaced homemakers comprise about 5% of the female population, which represents about 12,600 persons. These women are particularly disadvantaged due to extended periods of withdrawal from active employment in addition to lacking up-to-date skills. However, they are exceedingly receptive to occupational training. Their training interests are similar, yet more enthusiastically expressed, compared to those of other older women. Their aspirations for "professional" work is not as great as that exhibited by other women, but they have substantial interest in supervision/management positions as well as interest in some of the traditionally female occupations, like clerical, sales and nursing. Displaced homemakers, likewise, have interest in the non-traditional areas of construction, agriculture, forestry and mill work.

Battered women were enumerated within this study. One percent of the population reports being actively beaten, which is indicative of 2500 current victims statewide. Another 5.5% report having been battered in the past, but not presently. The percentage of non-responses to this item suggests that battering rates could be somewhat higher, but past and present victims do not appear to exceed 10% of the female population. Most battered women are relatively young (twenties or thirties) and the majority have minor children -- more children than have the average non-battered

women of the same age. Furthermore, there is evidence that spouse abuse and child abuse are part of the same syndrome. Very likely where one battered member exists, others are to be found. An important problem faced by battered women is lack of self-confidence, which reportedly spills over into the employment arena. Some formerly battered women state that the opportunity for gainful employment could have enabled them to exit the situation sooner.

Both displaced homemakers and battered women are realities of our society, and findings suggest that they are both on the increase.

Women cannot be overlooked as a crucial segment of the American economy. Many of their needs and problems are common to those of men; others are not, stemming from society's definitions of sex-related roles and expectations. Although all of this is in a state of flux, women and their role in the American economy and its accompanying social structure is and will continue to be an issue which cannot be ignored.

APPENDIX

TABLE A-1
Labor Union Membership
for Employed Women

Do you belong to a labor union?

YES	15.1%
NO	<u>84.8%</u>
	100.0%
	(N=556)

TABLE A-2
Self-Employment

Are you self-employed?

YES 7.2%

NO 92.8%
100.0%

(N=874)

TABLE A-3
Marital Status of Montana Women
1970 and 1978

	<u>1970 Census</u>	<u>1978 Study</u>
Single	11.1%	8.3%
Married	69.5%	73.9%
Widowed	13.3%	8.8%
Divorced	3.9%	6.0%
Separated	2.9%	1.4%
Living Together	-0-	1.5%
	<u>100.0%</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
		(N=1359)

TABLE A-4

Age Categories for Women 18 and Older

<u>Age</u>	<u>1970 Census</u>	<u>1978 Study</u>
18 to 19	5.8%	1.7%
20 to 29	21.0%	21.7%
30 to 39	16.8%	19.3%
40 to 49	17.1%	14.8%
50 to 59	16.6%	17.1%
60 and over	22.7%	19.7%
No answer	-0-	5.7%
	<u>100.0%</u>	<u>100.0%</u>

(N=1359)

TABLE A-5
Education of Montana Women

	<u>1970 Census*</u>	<u>1978 Study**</u>
8 years or less	21.0%	7.7%
Some High School	16.3%	9.9%
High School	36.9%	36.2%
Some College	16.4%	24.6%
Completed College	9.3%	21.5%
	<u>100.0%</u>	<u>100.0%</u>
		(N=1359)

* Age 25 and Older

** Age 18 and Older

TABLE A-6
Racial Groups of Montana

	<u>1970 Census</u>	<u>1978 Study</u>
White	95.5%	95.6%
Non-White	4.5%	4.4%
(American Indian)	(3.9%)	(3.7%)
(Other)	<u>(0.6%)</u>	<u>(0.7%)</u>
	100.0%	100.0%
		(N=1280)

TABLE A-7
Geographic Residence by County*

	<u>1970 Census</u>	<u>1978 Study</u>
Cascade	11.8%	11.1%
Flathead	5.7%	6.1%
Gallatin	4.7%	5.1%
Lewis & Clark	4.7%	5.2%
Missoula	8.3%	8.8%
Silver Bow	6.0%	5.3%
Yellowstone	<u>12.6%</u>	<u>13.2%</u>
Total Proportion of State	53.8%	54.8%

*These tables include only those counties with the largest populations. Other counties are omitted due to reliability concerns associated with small frequencies.

TABLE A-8
THE NEED FOR WORK-RELATED SERVICES BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF RESPONDENTS

	<u>Total %</u>	<u>8 Years or Less</u>	<u>Some High School</u>	<u>High School Grad.</u>	<u>Some College</u>	<u>College Graduate</u>	
Referral to specific job openings	56.3	36.6	52.8	54.3	64.7	56.9	χ^2^{***} C = .21508
Counseling about suitable jobs	55.8	28.6	50.0	48.8	53.6	36.7	χ^2^{***} C = .20884
General support encouragement	44.2	35.7	47.2	42.3	49.0	42.8	χ^2^* C = .19662
Counseling regarding different occupations	42.6	31.0	44.4	44.1	47.4	37.4	χ^2^* C = .19058
Assistance with long range plans	42.0	17.2	44.4	41.7	51.3	37.2	χ^2^* C = .20223
Assertiveness training	40.2	24.1	47.2	38.1	48.0	36.7	
Referral to part-time jobs	40.1	40.0	38.2	38.9	47.1	35.1	
Information on apprenticeship programs	38.3	17.2	38.8	41.9	47.8	28.5	χ^2^{**} C = .20494
Employment training	37.1	24.1	47.3	43.8	43.8	21.6	
Assistance with interview skills	34.9	23.3	42.9	39.7	34.9	28.9	
Assistance with resume preparation	33.0	24.1	28.5	46.0	36.1	29.8	
Counseling for on the job problems	29.8	20.7	27.8	35.2	31.2	23.6	
Test tutoring	26.3	13.8	33.4	28.6	38.0	12.7	χ^2^{***} C = .24162
Info regarding child care	22.8	9.7	14.3	22.6	28.1	22.4	

χ^2 significance: * .05
 ** .01
 *** .001

TABLE A-9
PROBLEMS OF WORKING WOMEN BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF RESPONDENTS

<u>Problems</u>	<u>Total %</u>	<u>8 yrs. or less</u>	<u>Some High School</u>	<u>High School Grad.</u>	<u>Some College</u>	<u>College Grad.</u>
Responsibility of job & family	37.3	18.5	36.9	35.6	38.2	42.0
Work physically tiring	20.5	14.8	33.2	23.0	17.3	17.2
Adequate child care	19.7	4.0	14.6	20.9	21.0	20.5
Can't afford to quit, like to	19.3	7.7	21.9	20.9	23.9	8.2
Help at home	19.2	7.7	18.2	17.8	22.2	20.0
Prefer part-time work	17.8	4.2	25.0	18.4	22.9	12.1
Lack of self confidence	17.0	18.5	15.5	15.4	20.8	17.0
Need full-time work	15.6	11.5	23.8	12.9	15.8	17.2
Transportation	14.2	11.5	20.9	12.7	17.5	11.6
Sex discrimination	12.4	3.8	7.0	6.5	15.0	17.9X ^{2*}
Children too young	11.4	4.0	7.2	11.9	13.2	11.3
Traveling on job	10.7	0.0	11.9	11.0	10.1	11.6
Difficulty of work	10.4	0.0	16.7	8.1	9.5	14.4
Husband's attitude toward wife's work	9.3	0.0	21.4	5.7	12.9	8.0
Supervision of teens	8.4	3.8	11.1	8.5	8.8	8.0
Pregnancy	4.7	3.8	2.3	3.7	2.6	8.7
Traveling with male associate	4.7	7.6	9.6	5.2	6.3	.6
Want to quit- afraid of retaliation	4.5	7.7	5.0	3.4	7.9	1.8
Sexual harrassment	4.0	0.0	7.0	3.2	5.7	3.1
Race discrimination	1.6	3.7	7.2	1.3	0.0	.6

TABLE A-10
ASPECTS OF WORK CAUSING DISSATISFACTION BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

<u>Aspects of Work</u>	<u>Total %</u>	<u>8 yrs. or less</u>	<u>Some High School</u>	<u>High School Grad.</u>	<u>Some College</u>	<u>College Grad.</u>
Opportunity for promotion	50.4	46.4	34.4	49.7	60.2	46.7
Salary	46.8	39.3	52.9	47.8	53.1	38.5
Avail of training programs	42.8	30.7	40.6	43.3	50.0	38.0
Avail of job counseling	37.2	36.0	33.4	39.0	41.8	35.5
Insufficient leisure time	35.3	46.2	29.0	36.7	22.0	36.7
Means of solving job problems	33.4	24.0	28.2	42.3	32.3	24.5
Retirement benefits	29.3	16.0	45.2	34.3	26.0	24.5
Morale of co-worker	29.1	16.0	12.5	37.8	28.7	23.7
Recognition of work	28.3	11.5	25.0	31.1	29.5	27.2
Use of my skills	27.1	29.6	15.7	28.8	36.0	18.8
Health benefits	25.0	25.9	15.2	24.6	31.0	22.3
Supervisor's managerial skills	23.8	11.1	15.7	29.1	22.0	22.8
Vacation, personal leave	20.5	29.6	27.3	21.9	21.0	15.1
Working conditions	19.6	7.1	29.3	23.8	23.2	10.8
Hours	16.1	10.3	29.4	16.0	16.3	15.8
Actual work	15.0	17.2	14.7	14.2	20.2	11.0
Treatment by boss	14.7	3.4	11.8	18.4	16.3	11.5
Interest in job	14.3	10.7	15.2	14.8	16.5	12.3
Relations with						
Co-workers	8.9	10.7	3.0	12.6	7.0	2.9

TABLE A-11
OCCUPATIONAL INTERESTS BY EDUCATIONAL LEVELS

Job Areas	Education						
	Total %	8 yrs. or less	Some High School	High School Grad.	Some College	College Grad.	
Public Relations	53.7	25.0	37.6	52.8	54.5	55.6	$\chi^2_{***} C = .21592$
Secretarial	47.8	28.4	41.1	36.4	58.1	29.2	$\chi^2_{***} C = .26512$
Professional	42.6	14.7	25.0	39.3	55.7	46.4	$\chi^2_{***} C = .24931$
Sales work	40.3	33.9	42.1	46.2	46.9	24.2	$\chi^2_{***} C = .20047$
Nurse/LPN	30.0	21.9	45.2	29.9	30.4	26.2	$\chi^2^* C = .12880$
Child-care Provision	27.9	18.0	29.1	15.2	31.3	30.5	
Teaching	23.8	18.1	17.4	23.4	39.6	54.7	$\chi^2_{***} C = .32158$
Forestry	20.8	8.2	27.0	18.1	24.8	21.5	
Agriculture	20.5	18.0	16.0	18.9	24.3	20.7	
Building Trades	15.9	14.7	25.3	13.2	16.9	16.2	
Waitress	12.5	6.6	24.7	15.2	12.8	5.9	$\chi^2_{***} C = .12268$
Mechanical/Elec. Trades	12.2	9.9	13.1	10.9	14.6	11.6	
Factory/Mill work	10.7	11.5	22.1	12.3	11.2	3.6	$\chi^2_{***} C = .15834$

* = χ^2 sig. at .01

** = χ^2 sig. at .05

*** = χ^2 sig. at .001

TABLE A-12*
MONTANA
OCCUPATIONAL ATTACHMENT OF EMPLOYED FEMALES
(1970 Census Data)

	PERCENT
TOTAL EMPLOYED	100.0
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL & RELATED	17.9
Engineers	-
Medical and Health Workers	4.5
Teachers, Elementary & Secondary Schools	8.0
Other Professional Workers	5.4
NONFARM MANAGERS & ADMINISTRATORS	5.5
Salaried	-
Self-employed	-
FARM WORKERS	2.4
NONFARM LABORERS	1.1
SALES WORKERS	7.7
Retail Stores	6.7
Other Sales Workers	1.0
CLERICAL WORKERS	31.7
Secretaries, Stenographers, & Typists	10.2
Other Clerical Workers	21.5
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN & RELATED	1.0
Construction Craftsmen	-
Mechanics & Repairmen	-
Machinist & other Metal Craftsmen	-
Other Craftsmen	-
OPERATIVES, EXCEPT TRANSPORT	3.4
Durable Goods Manufacturing	0.4
Nondurable Goods Manufacturing	0.5
Nonmanufacturing	2.5
TRANSPORT EQUIPMENT OPERATIVES	0.4
SERVICE WORKERS EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD	25.4
Cleaning & Food Service Workers	16.0
Protective Service Workers	0.1
Personal, Health, other Service Workers	9.3
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS	3.4

*From: Montana Women on the Move, Employment Security Division, Department of Labor and Industry, 1978

TABLE A-13*
MONTANA
OCCUPATIONAL ATTACHMENT OF EMPLOYED FEMALES
(1960 Census Data)

	PERCENT
TOTAL EMPLOYED	100.0
PROFESSIONAL, TECHNICAL & KINDRED	16.5
Medical and Other Health Workers	
Salaried	4.5
Self-employed	0.4
Teachers, Elementary & Secondary	7.6
Other Professional, Technical and Kindred	
Salaried	3.1
Self-employed	0.9
FARMERS AND FARM MANAGERS	1.2
MANAGERS, OFFICIALS & PROPRIETORS (Non-Farm)	5.6
Salaried	3.0
Self-employed	
Retail Trade	1.3
Other than retail trade	1.3
SALES WORKERS	8.9
Retail Trade	8.0
Other than retail trade	0.9
CLERICAL & KINDRED WORKERS	27.8
Secretaries, Stenographers & Typists	8.3
Other Clerical Workers	19.4
CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN & RELATED	0.7
OPERATIVES & KINDRED	4.2
Durable Goods Manufacturing	0.1
Nondurable Goods Manufacturing	0.6
Manufacturing	3.5
FARM LABORERS & FOREMEN	1.5
NON-FARM LABORERS, EXCEPT MINE	0.3
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD WORKERS	7.5
SERVICE WORKERS EXCEPT PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD	21.5
Food Service Workers	10.2
Other Services	11.3
OCCUPATIONS NOT REPORTED	4.4

*From: Montana Women on the Move, Employment Security Division, Department of Labor and Industry, 1978

TABLE A-14
PLANS TO SEEK EMPLOYMENT

YES	13.4%
MAYBE	19.2%
NO	67.4%
	<u>100.0%</u>

(N=749)

Table A-15

EMPLOYMENT STATUS AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN

<u>Total</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5+</u>	<u>Total</u>
Working/Full-Time	56.3%	19.5%	14.2%	5.8%	2.0%	2.2%	100.0%
Working/Part-Time	44.3%	22.7%	17.5%	10.3%	2.6%	2.5%	100.0%
Not Working	41.7%	16.5%	23.1%	10.9%	5.6%	2.2%	100.0%
Not Working/Retired	95.7%	1.2%	0.6%	0.0%	0.6%	1.8%	100.0%
Not Working/Disabled	83.3%	6.7%	6.7%	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total Women	54.3%	16.2%	16.4%	7.7%	3.3%	2.1%	100.0%

TABLE A-16
EMPLOYMENT STATUS BY CHILDREN IN VARIOUS AGE GROUPS

	<u>Children*</u> <u>Under 3 Years</u>	<u>Children*</u> <u>3-6 Years</u>	<u>Children*</u> <u>6-12 Years</u>	<u>Children*</u> <u>12-18 Years</u>
Working Full-Time	9.9%	9.9%	17.5%	21.3%
Working Part-Time	15.5%	17.5%	24.2%	23.2%
Not Working	21.2%	19.6%	26.0%	26.2%
Retired	1.8%	2.5%	1.2%	3.7%
Disabled	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	16.7%

*These rows are not additive, not being exclusive of each other.

TABLE A-17
 Women Paying Child Care Costs

	<u>%</u>
Working Full-Time	21.1%
Working Part-Time	22.2%
Not Working	7.6%
Retired	0.0%
Disabled	0.0%

TABLE A-18

I would take an interesting job if . . .

Conditions for Employment*

If I can do it	52.0%
If satisfied with wage	40.0%
If satisfied with location	36.4%
If husband agrees	20.0%
If I can find child care	13.1%
Other	1.6%

*Column does not add to 100%, since more than one answer is possible.

TABLE A-19
Reasons for Not Working*

Already retired	28.0%
Health reasons	15.0%
Want to be homemaker	40.3%
Can't find child care	2.2%
Prefer to care for own children	24.7%
Pregnancy	3.0%
Don't want to work outside home	29.3%
Personal reasons	3.0%
Husband objects	9.0%
School	2.0%
Don't think I can get a job	5.0%
Can't find work I'd really like	7.0%
Lack of part-time work	6.7%
Other	10.0%

*Column does not add to 100%, since more than one answer is possible.

TABLE A-20

Spouse Abuse by Family Income

	Less than \$3000/yr	\$3000- \$5999	\$6000- \$7999	\$8000- \$9999	\$10,000 \$12,999	\$13,000- \$15,999	\$16,000- \$19,999	\$20,000 or more	TOTAL
Currently Battered	60.0%	20.0%	0%	0%	20.0%	0%	0%	0%	100.0%
Formerly Battered	40.0%	28.8%	14.0%	6.0%	4.0%	6.0%	0%	2.0%	100.0%
Never Battered	39.6%	18.6%	12.9%	9.8%	9.1%	5.8%	2.6%	1.8%	100.0%

TABLE A-21

Spouse Abuse by Victim's Education

	<u>Less than high school</u>	<u>Some high school</u>	<u>High school</u>	<u>Some College</u>	<u>College</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Currently Battered	0%	9.1%	45.5%	27.3%	18.2%	100.0%
Formerly Battered	4.4%	19.1%	38.2%	22.1%	16.2%	100.0%
Never Battered	7.6%	9.4%	35.5%	25.3%	22.3%	100.0%

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